

### OPERATING SYSTEM CONCEPTS

Chapter 11. File-System Interface

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- Objectives
- 2 Files and Directories
- 3 File Interface
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# **Objectives**

- To explain the function of file systems.
- To describe the interfaces to file systems.
- To discuss file-system design tradeoffs, including access methods, file sharing, file locking, and directory structures.
- To explore file-system protection.



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### **Files and Directories**

- · Virtualizing the persistent storage
- Two key abstractions
  - A file is simply a linear array of bytes, each of which you can read or write
    - Each file has some kind of low-level name, which is often referred to as its inode number
  - A directory, contains a list of entries, each of which is a (user-readable name, low-level name) pair, referring to either a file or other directory
    - Also has a low-level name (i.e., an inode number)





### Files and Directories

- By placing directories within other directories, users are able to build an arbitrary directory tree (or directory hierarchy), under which all files and directories are stored.
- The directory hierarchy starts at a root directory, and uses some kind of separator to name subsequent sub-directories until the desired file or directory is named.
- A file can thus be referred to by its absolute pathname.
- One great thing provided by the file system: a convenient way to name all the files we are interested in.
- The file name often has two parts: x.y, separated by a period. The first part is an arbitrary name, whereas the second part of the file name is usually used to indicate the type of the file.
  - However, this is usually just a convention: there is usually no enforcement that the data contained in a file named main.c is indeed C source code.





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**Creating Files** 

- The open() system call
  - int fd = open("foo", O\_CREAT | O\_WRONLY | O\_TRUNC);
- Creates a file called "foo" in the current working directory.
- The routine open() takes a number of different flags.
  - The program creates the file (O\_CREAT), can only write to that file while
    opened in this manner (O\_WRONLY), and, if the file already exists, first
    truncate it to a size of zero bytes thus removing any existing content
    (O\_TRUNC).



# File Interface Creating Files (contd.)

- A file descriptor is what open() returns.
- Is just an integer, private per process, and is used in UNIX systems to access files, i.e., to call read() and write().
- We will see how to use a file descriptor.



Reading Files

Reading an existing file

```
prompt> echo hello > foo
prompt> cat foo
hello
hello
prompt>
```

Let's trace the system calls

```
1 prompt> strace cat foo ...
3 open ("foo", O.RDONLY | O.LARGEFILE) = 3 read(3, "hello\n", 4096) = 6 write(1, "hello\n", 6) = 6 hello read(3, "", 4096) = 0 close(3) = 0 ...
10 prompt>
```



Reading Files (contd.)

- 1 open ("foo", O.RDONLY | O.LARGEFILE) = 3
- Each running process already has three files open, standard input, standard output, and standard error.

```
1 read (3, "hello\n", 4096) = 6
```

- The first argument to read() is the file descriptor, thus telling the file system which file to read;
- The second argument points to a buffer where the result of the read() will be placed (the system-call trace above shows the results of the read in this spot).
- The third argument is the size of the buffer, which in this case is 4 KB.
- The call to read() returns the number of bytes it read ( take into account the end-of-line marker).



Reading Files (contd.)



• The file descriptor 1 is the standard output, and thus is used to write the word "hello" to the screen as the program cat is meant to do.

```
1 read (3, "", 4096) = 0
```

 The cat program then tries to read more from the file, but since there are no bytes left in the file, the read() returns 0 and the program knows that this means it has read the entire file.

```
1 close(3) = 0
```

· Close the file.



# File Interface Writing Files

- Writing a file has similar steps
  - First, a file is opened for writing;
  - Then the write() system call is called;
  - Perhaps repeatedly for larger files;
  - And then close().



#### Reading / Writing NOT Sequentially

- Thus far, we've discussed how to read and write files, but all access has been sequential.
- How to read or write to a specific offset within a file.
- The Iseek() system call

```
1 off_t lseek(int fildes, off_t offset, int whence);
```

- The first argument is a file descriptor.
- The second argument is offset, which positions the file offset to a particular location within the file.
- The third argument, called whence for historical reasons, determines exactly how the seek is performed.



Reading / Writing NOT Sequentially (contd.)

Details about whence

```
If whence is SEEK_SET, the offset is set to offset bytes.

If whence is SEEK_CUR, the offset is set to its current location plus offset bytes.

If whence is SEEK_END, the offset is set to the size of the file plus offset bytes.
```

- Thus, we know that an open file has a current offset, which is updated in one of two ways.
  - The first is when a read or write of N bytes takes place, N is added to the current offset; thus each read or write implicitly updates the offset.
  - The second is explicitly with Iseek, which changes the offset as specified above.



# File Interface Writing Immediately

- Most times when a program calls write(), it is just telling the file system: please write this data to persistent storage, at some point in the future.
- The file system, for performance reasons, will buffer such writes in memory for some time, then the write(s) will actually be issued to the storage device.
- How to write immediately?



Writing Immediately (contd.)

- The fsync() system call.
- When a process calls fsync(int fd), the file system responds by forcing all dirty (i.e., not yet written) data to disk, for the file referred to by the specified file descriptor.

```
int fd = open("foo", O.CREAT | O.WRONLY | O.TRUNC);
assert(fd > -1);
int rc = write(fd, buffer, size);
assert(rc = size);
rc = fsync(fd);
assert (rc = 0);
```

- If the file is newly created, we also need to fsync() the directory that contains the file.
- What if something bad (power off) happens when performing fsync()?



#### Renaming Files

- How to give a file a different name.
- 1 prompt> mv foo bar
- The rename() system call

```
1 rename(char *old, char *new)
```

- the original name of the file (old)
- the new name (new).
- It is implemented as an atomic call with respect to system crashes.
- It is critical for supporting certain kinds of applications that require an atomic update to file state.



# File Interface Renaming Files (contd.)

Atomic update to file state

```
int fd = open("foo.txt.tmp", O.WRONLY | O.CREAT | O.TRUNC);
write(fd, buffer, size);
fsync(fd);
close(fd);
rename("foo.txt.tmp", "foo.txt");
```



**Getting Information about Files** 

- File system keeps a fair amount of information about each file it is storing.
- Such data is called metadata

```
struct stat {
     dev_t st_dev;
                             // ID of device containing file
     ino_t st_ino;
                             // inode number
4
     mode_t st_mode;
                             // protection
      nlink_t
                    st_nlink:
                                     // number of hard links
     uid_t st_uid;
                             // user ID of owner
     gid_t st_gid;
                            // group ID of owner
8
                             // device ID (if special file)
     dev_t st_rdev;
     off_t st_size;
                             // total size, in bytes
     blksize_t
                   st_blksize;
                                  // blocksize for filesystem I/O
     blkcnt_t
                    st_blocks;
                                  // number of blocks allocated
                    st_atime;
                               // time of last access
     time_t
     time_t
                    st_mtime:
                                   // time of last modification
                                   // time of last status change
14
     time_t
                    st_ctime:
```



Getting Information about Files (contd.)

• The stat() or fstat() system calls

 Such information is kept in a structure called an inode, we will dive into it in future



#### Permission Bits

UNIX permission bits

- Nine bits determine, for each regular file, directory, and other entities, exactly who (owner, group, other) can access it and how (read, write, execute).
- Change the file mode (chmod() command)

```
1 prompt> chmod 777 test.sh
```



#### Removing Files

- Delete files: rm() in UNIX.
- Let's trace the system calls in program rm.

```
1 prompt> strace rm foo ... unlink("foo") = 0 ...
```

- The unlink() system call
  - Takes the name of the file to be removed.
  - Why not something like remove() or delete()?
    - To understand the answer to this puzzle, we must first understand more than just files, but also directories.



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# **Directory Interface**Making Directories

• The mkdir() system call

 A newly created directory is considered "empty", (i.e., only has "." and ".." entries).



# **Directory Interface**

Reading Directories

• The Is() system call

```
/* a ls() like program */
     struct dirent {
                              d_name [256];
                                               // filename
             char
4
             ino t
                              d_no:
                                               // inode number
5
             off_t
                              d_off:
                                               // offset to the next dirent
6
             unsigned short d_reclen:
                                               // length of this record
                                               // type of file
             unsigned char
                              d_type;
8
     };
Q
     int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
             DIR *dp = opendir(".");
             assert (dp != NULL);
             struct dirent *d;
14
             while ((d = readdir(dp)) != NULL) {
                      printf("%|u_%s\n", (unsigned long) d->d_ino, d->d_name);
             closedir(dp);
18
             return 0;
19
```



# **Directory Interface**Deleting Directories

- The program rmdir
- The rmdir() system call
- rmdir() has the requirement that the directory be empty (i.e., only has "." and ".." entries) before it is deleted.



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# Links Hard Links

 The link() system call takes two arguments, an old pathname and a new one; when you "link" a new file name to an old one, you essentially create another way to refer to the same file.

```
prompt> echo hello > file
prompt> cat file
hello
prompt> ln file file2
prompt> cat file2
hello
prompt> ls —i file file2
for prompt> ls —i file file2
prompt> ls —i file file2
prompt> ls —i file file2
```

The way link works is that it simply creates another name in the directory you
are creating the link to, and refers it to the same inode number (i.e., low-level
name) of the original file. The file is **NOT** copied in any way.



### Links Hard Links (contd.)

- Recall that removing a file is performed via unlink().
- · On creating a file
  - First, you are making a structure (the inode) that will track virtually all relevant information about the file, including its size, where its blocks are on disk, and so forth.
  - Second, you are linking a human-readable name to that file, and putting that link into a directory.
- · When unlinking a file
  - The file system checks a reference count (sometimes called the link count) within the inode number.
  - Only when the reference count reaches zero, does the file system also free the inode and related data blocks, and thus truly "delete" the file.





### Links Symbolic Links

- Hard links are somewhat limited.
  - You can't create one to a directory (for fear that you will create a cycle in the directory tree);
  - You can't hard link to files in other disk partitions (because inode numbers are only unique within a particular file system, not across file systems);
  - Etc.
- There is one other type of link that is really useful, and it is called a symbolic link or sometimes a soft link.

```
prompt> echo hello > file
prompt> ln -s file file2
prompt> cat file2
hello
prompt>
```



#### Links Symbolic Links

• A symbolic link is actually a file itself, of a different type.

```
prompt> stat file
regular file rompt> stat file2
rompt> stat file2
rompt> stat file2
rompt> stat file2
```

Running Is

```
1 prompt> Is —al 2 drwxr—x—— 2 kai kai 6 Jul 13 19:10 ./
3 drwxr—x—— 26 kai kai 4096 Jul 13 16:17 ../
-rw—r 1 kai kai 6 Jul 1319:10 file 5 lrwxrwxrwx 1 kai kai 4 Jul 1319:10 file 2 —> file
```

- The first character in the left-most column is a "-" for regular files, a "d" for directories, and an "l" for soft links.
- The size of the symbolic link is 4 bytes in this case.





#### Links Symbolic Links

A dangling reference:

```
prompt> echo hello > file
prompt> ln —s file file2
prompt> cat file2
hello
prompt> cat file2
hello
prompt> cat file2
cat: file2: No such file or directory
```

 Removing the original file causes the link to point to a pathname that no longer exists.



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# File System Interface

Making and Mounting a File System

- How to assemble a full directory tree from many underlying file systems?
  - Make file systems (mkfs() command)
    - Give the tool, as input, a device (such as a disk partition, e.g., /dev/sda1) and a file system type (e.g., ext3), and it simply writes an empty file system, starting with a root directory, onto that disk partition.
  - Mount them to make their contents accessible (mount() command)
    - Takes an existing directory as a target mount point and essentially paste a new file system onto the directory tree at that point.

```
prompt> mount —t ext3 /dev/sda1 /home/users
```

